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ABSTRACT

Four articles on fostering communicative competence in the English as a second language classroom are presented. In "Communicative Competence as an Emphasis in Language Teaching," Alan Kerr examines the subject at a theoretical level and looks at some implications for the classroom. In "Communicative Competence, or 'Who Speaks What Language to Whom and on What Occasion?'" Jean Hunt discusses ways of forging links between performance at the manipulation level and at the communication level. The matter of communication between the school and the non-English-speaking parent is treated in "Introduction to School: An English Language experiment in Co-operation between the School and the Community" by Noel Simpson, Jan Wallbridge, and Kath Richter. "Practical Exercises for Fostering Communicative Competence in Adult Learners of English" by Dorothy Brown and Janet Holmes pays particular attention to the formulation and questions. Finally, Thelma Grant offers "Some Notes on Visits to Language Centres in the United Kingdom." (JB)

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Vol. 2 No. 4 June, 1977

TEFL/TESL NEWSLETTER

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FOR THE INTERCHANGE OF INFORMATION AND IDEAS ON THE TEACHING OF ENGLISH AS A SECOND OR FOREIGN LANGUAGE IN AUSTRALIA

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EDITORIAL

In this issue we continue the theme of the last number, "How to foster communicative competence". Dr Alan Kerr examines the subject at a theoretical level and looks at some implications for the classroom. Mrs Jean Hunt discusses ways of forging links between performance at the manipulation level and at the communication level. The article by Mrs Dorothy Brown and Mrs Janet Holmes pays particular attention to the formulation of questions.

The above articles were submitted under the general theme of this issue. We also include a contribution by Mr Noel Simpson, Ms Jan Wallbridge and Ms Kath Richter. This article, as it happens, has considerable relevance to the theme since it considers the matter of communication between the school and the migrant parent.

In addition, there are some interesting notes from Mrs Thelma Grant about her visits to language centres in the United Kingdom.

It is hoped to include in our next issue some discussion of the "Priority English" material of our October 1976 number. (See Vol. 2 No. 2) We therefore invite written comment, however brief, on the general question of priority materials and, specifically, on the materials proposed in that issue.

In addition to this, contributions are now invited on the theme, "The Role of Reading in TESL" for a future edition.

COMMUNICATIVE COMPETENCE AS AN EMPHASIS IN LANGUAGE TEACHING

*Alan Kerr

During the last few years, language teachers who keep themselves open to developments in their field have found themselves confronted by a quick succession of such emphases as structuralism, audio-lingualism, situational teaching, the audio-visual global and structural method, and so on. One of the latest arrivals is the quest for communicative competence, a term occurring with increasing frequency in discussions of language teaching, particularly in the context of linguistics and applied linguistics as supportive disciplines.

Citing a few examples from the literature may help to clarify the implications of communicative competence as far as the classroom practitioner is concerned. An early occurrence of the idea is to be found in the insistence of Prator (1964) that structurally-based courses are characterised by a failure to move from 'language manipulation' to 'communication'. Cautions against over-emphasis on the repetitive, manipulative aspects of the audio-lingual method were thought necessary by Rivers (1964), a well-known exponent of the method, who suggested more attention to cultural context and situational meaning.

Ferguson (1972) is more explicit, talking in terms of the functions of language and the aim of language teaching:

> Since the function of language is to communicate, communication is the ultimate aim of our teaching. Furthermore the most direct way to teach someone to communicate is to make him communicate.
>
> Language to be communicative must be meaningful. It may be attractive to listen to someone speaking Ukrainian, but if you do not understand there is no communication involved.
>
> The first point in our methodology, then is as follows: Language practice should be meaningful communicative activity...
>
> (Ferguson, 1972, pp.24-5)

Perhaps the latest references available to most Australian readers can be found in various papers composing the Edinburgh Course in Applied Linguistics, published in 1975, where it is asserted:

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* Dr Kerr is Senior Lecturer in Multicultural Education and Director of the Diploma in Migrant Teaching Program at the Armidale College of Advanced Education.

> ...knowing a language involves not only a knowledge of the formal properties of the language as a system but also a knowledge of how this system is put to use in the performing of social actions of different kinds. In other words, knowledge of a language is not only a matter of grammatical competence but also of communicative competence. It follows that the language teacher ought to be as much concerned with the one as with the other.
>
> (Criper & Widdowson, 1975,p.209).

The effect of these assertions about language teaching is a recommendation that teachers return from a preoccupation with the technology of teaching based mainly on a structural description of language to an emphasis on the purpose of language and its function as a code for communication between people. This does not mean teachers should ignore language structure. It simply means redressing the balance between emphasis on structure and a clear view of the function of language. Those who advance communicative competence as a watchword want us to turn from too close a preoccupation with considerations with a methodology based on linguistic science as it developed in the past half of the century, during which time structuralism provided a description that was a much better fit to the language than traditional grammar. The advocates of communicative competence are calling on us to modify our technology of teaching to respond to current emphases in sociolinguistics, emphases that consider the function of language in society as at least as important as the internal structure of the language code.

This reflects a widespread current tendency in all areas of teaching that employ linguistics as a supporting discipline. This tendency is to move from basic areas of description and analysis to questions of function and purpose. For example, in the area of reading instruction there is currently a debate between two 'schools'. The first school consists of those who stress teaching component subskills (visual discrimination, aural discrimination, phonic decoding) based on linguistic analysis. The second school comprises the advocates of an approach stressing reading for meaning or information decoding, based on psycholinguistic research that emphasises the function of reading as a code for transmitting information.

Very few teachers would quarrel with linguists who recommend an emphasis on communicative competence. Insistence on the communicative aim of language learning is nothing new, and most teachers would in fact look to the applied linguists for some suggestion as to techniques that could be used to improve such competence. They would not however find a great deal of immediate aid in admonitions such as:

> What techniques can best be used to teach communicative competence must ultimately be a matter for the teacher to work out for himself. Our aim has been to draw attention to those aspects of language use which he must be aware of before such techniques can be devised.
>
> (Criper and Widdowson, 1975,p.210)

Faced with this kind of helpful comment, the teacher has but one recourse - to examine the basic propositions involved in the notion of communicative competence and make the necessary inferences.

A summary of such principles in the field of grammar is to be found in Allen and Widdowson (1975), where communicative competence as an emphasis in language teaching is expanded in terms of 'functional grammar' and 'functional language teaching'.

Allen and Widdowson point out that for years language teaching has concentrated on teaching the code rather than the use of the code, and they list a number of criticisms of approaches that do not admit of communicative competence (Allen & Widdowson 1974, Allen 1973, Widdowson 1972).

Their proposals for a new syllabus espouse what they call a 'notional' approach. They suggest that using structural bases for selecting material leads to manipulation of structure rather than communication. They recommend an approach which would select sentences for teaching on the grounds that their varying surface structures realise the same basic proposition for deep structure. For example, they would group the following sentences:

> John broke the window.
> The window was broken by John.
> It was John who broke the window.
>
> (Allen and Widdowson, 1975,p.90)

Their contention is that a 'notional' basis of selection leads to explicit association of semantic relations between different surface structures, and also allows other advantages.

The most important of these is that it would provide a better basis for remediation than present approaches. Whereas the present prescription for remedial lessons is more of the same kind of repetition that has already failed with the remedial student, a notional approach allows a new grouping and consequently new presentation of material. Other reasons for a notional approach are related to the teaching of comprehension and use of translation as a teaching device, based on the relation between deep and

surface structure. Readers should follow these propositions in the grammatical field in Allen and Widdowson (1975).

As a complement to the grammarian's approach to communicative competence the reader can find a summary of the sociolinguist's approach in Criper and Widdowson (1975). The latter authors insist that if language is to be taught as communication between people, then much more than a grammatical analysis must be used as a basis of reference.

The most important of their assertions is that it is the social context in which utterances are made that largely determines their meaning. Of course this principle has long been acknowledged by teachers who espouse the situational approach. But Criper and Widdowson rightly point out that previously

> "... situations are created in the classroom to give meaning to language items as elements of the code, and consequently have a fundamentally metalinguistic purpose. Classroom mockups of the railway station, the shop, the office and so on do not reflect the actual uses of language that we have discussed. Usually they are devices for stimulating the learner's interest rather than for teaching an ability to handle language in the real world... This does not constitute the teaching of language as communication."
>
> (Criper & Widdowson, 1975, p.210)

A real contextualisation of language being learned would mean according to this point of view, that the situation used as a classroom teaching device would be one which is socially significant in its own right and not merely a mock-up of another extra-class situation, used to provide extrinsic motivation.

If one now tries to put together all these principles, both grammatical and sociolinguistic, and tries to infer the kind of teaching that flows from them, the implications for the classroom are wide-reaching. Consider, for example, only organisation of instruction, selection of material, and techniques of presentation and utilization and what these entail.

In the first place the concepts of withdrawal teaching or special language lessons unrelated to the learner's occupation are untenable. If language is to be 'contextualised' as the sociolinguists see it, the language learning must occur in the ordinary social situation. This means a quite different approach to organisation, but already there are schools in Victoria where migrant children's language learning goes on not in withdrawal classes but in their 'ordinary' classroom, concurrent with, and based on, other lessons.

Secondly a notional or communicative emphasis dictates a radical change in conventional processes of selection and grading of material. A purely structural basis of selection, unrelated to themes or the communicative utterances usual in a thematically-derived and socially significant situation, is no longer appropriate. Even now there are teachers of both adults and children who employ thematic or situational and not grammatical bases for selection of material.

Thirdly, the techniques used for presentation and drill of material may be quite different. It is virtually impossible to generalise in this area because of the fact that each teacher must select techniques that are appropriate in the particular situation. However, it is safe to predict that the process of rote learning of dialogue, for example, is likely to figure less prominently in a course based on these principles than in some courses taught in the past.

Finally, a teacher employing a communicative approach is likely to place a great deal more emphasis on a step known as 'application' or 'utilisation' than teachers who have followed a rigorously repetitive strategy in the past. If learning language skills is to mean anything they must be 'applied' or 'utilised' in the socially significant situation in which they are contextually appropriate.

The notion of communicative competence is not really a new approach to language teaching. Basically the Direct Method of the early twentieth century embraced such an emphasis. It suffered from lack of a grammatical description of language that was sufficiently inclusive to support it, and also from lack of a theory of language function that paid sufficient attention to social context. In the intervening years linguistics appears to have caught up with the pragmatism of its advocates. It remains for modern teachers to recognise the validity of the emphasis and to develop their own particular techniques.

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COMMUNICATIVE COMPETENCE

or

'WHO SPEAKS WHAT LANGUAGE TO WHOM AND ON WHAT OCCASION?'(1)

* Jean Hunt

I would like to discuss firstly what is meant by 'communicative competence', by examining a situation only too familiar to teachers of English to adult migrants.

Let us consider Aldo, or Tania (et al) who attend classes regularly until they have covered the curriculum offered in the traditional English class, and who at the end of the course deservedly receive a certificate denoting a 'working knowledge of English'.

These students admit readily that they have learned a great deal of English, but hasten to add that they are always identified as migrants the moment they speak, and that they always feel unsure of what they should really say in differing given situations.

They acknowledge and evince a sound knowledge of grammatical rules and lexis, but are unable to communicate adequately or approximately within the social context.

Furthermore, they tend to complain that the speech patterns in which the grammatical elements were taught are not the same as patterns or responses used by the average native speaker, thus tacitly agreeing that language is not only rule, but resource. For example, migrants are successfully taught formal social greetings of 'Good morning' or 'How do you do?' but are left to work out the ubiquitous 'G'day' or 'How are y' going?' Or again, imagine the indecision when a response is required for - 'Would you like beer?' 'Would you like some beer?' 'How about a beer?' 'Buy you a beer?' 'C'mon, my shout'. I am led to believe that the ability to sort out these usage problems successfully, is the basic element of communicative competence.

It is recognised that a sound knowledge of syntax and lexis (code) in areas of passive and active skills can be regarded as the basis of communicative performance, but that the ability to embody the rules in correct social context, with appropriate rhythm, intonation, inflection, and nuance accompanied by the recognised non-verbal language moves the student into the area of 'competence' (See summary at end of article).

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(1) This quotation is from the Introduction to Language and Social Context by Pier Paolo Giglioli. (Penguin, 1973, p.11.).

* Mrs Hunt is the Supervisor of the Migrant Education Branch, Melbourne.

Mere performance tends to result from adherence to traditional teaching notions of pattern teaching, chorus drills and substitution techniques until the student achieves fluency in the structural sentence being taught, at which point the teacher is apt to feel gratified at how well or vociferously the class has performed, and then will proceed to the next item on the structured program.

What seems to be missing is the linking up of performance to competence.

If we see competence as the functional, ethnographical outcome, and the ultimate, long term objective of language teaching, I would posit that a teacher needs to consider the provision of a curriculum which links code to behaviour, or in other words, employs prescriptive formalised teaching to reach the broader descriptive aspects of competence.

My personal view here is that students are not satisfied with a program which sets out to teach competence alone, but that, rather, they appreciate being shown that competence can be a logical outcome (often in the same lesson) of a statement and practice of the under-pinning grammatical rules. This is a personal opinion, no doubt coloured by my own teaching methodology but I state it as an antidote to much of the superficial teaching which is glibly offered in the name of immediate needs or functional phrases.

Allow me to give a very simple example of competence following performance in parallel teaching, where the following parallels occur:

1. How is Mary?
   She isn't very well.

   What's the matter with her?
   (I think) She has a temperature.

2. How's Mary?
   Not very well.
   (Not too good).
   What's the matter?
   Not sure, a temperature, I think.

I make the point that the student must understand the formal structure, (1) above, before he can produce correctly the elliptical 'Not very well' or subsequent ethnographical changes such as 'Not too good', 'not too bright'.

Again, at competence level, the questions 'How's Mary?' and 'How's Mary now?' indicate to the native speaker that we are asking quite different questions, requiring different answers. For example, in the first question we really do not know how Mary is, but in the second question we must give an answer to an implication that Mary has been, or is still, sick; for example, 'She's still in hospital. She's lots better thanks.' or further, 'She says she's a little better', thus alerting the listener to the implied fact that the speaker has made contact with Mary recently.

It is this alerting to small information markers, such as 'now' in our example, which puts a student on the road to competence, and does not leave him simply at the performance level of rote response.

So far, I have been concerned in outlining the notion that competence involves knowing what to say in different social contexts, but surely the point of 'how' to actually produce the utterance must receive adequate teaching time before a student can be considered as having competence. This involves the teaching of English sounds in minimal pairs, the often-neglected tonal patterns of question inflection, sentence stress, rhythm and intonation, syllable stress, as well as the odd habit of the Australian native-speaker of inserting a linking sound between two vowels such as: the-evening / the-eight / my-eye / or of running a sound on to the next word (grow-up) (wear-out) in order to maintain a speech continuum free of jerkiness.

At this point the student's communication will still not approximate the native-speaker's, unless some culture transmission has been included in the teaching theory, so that the accepted patterns of non-verbal language are understood and used in social interaction.

It is not always apparent to students that the normal, eloquent gesticulations, or shoulder shrugs of their language are not identical with the limited variety in use by native Australian speakers. Teachers should also realise the need to tactfully teach non-verbal items such as hand-shaking, or voluntary eye-contact where the ethnic culture of the students does not approve such behaviour. (for example, some Indo-Asian students experience great difficulty with this aspect of English.)

It remains therefore for the teacher to initiate teaching programs and methodology in which the melding of analysis of speech, and the social situation in which communication is needed, will provide means of progress from the philosophical performance level to the desired, attainable reaches of communicative competence.

Summary

A listing of aspects of language would show:

Performance	Competence
(Langue)	(Parole)
Code	Behaviour
Grammar rules	Social Context
Grammar/translation	Meaning
Prescriptive	Descriptive
Analytical	

Philosophical	Ethnographical
Notions of language	Usage - reality
Language traditions	Register
Traditional teaching	Non-verbal language
	Pronunciation
Little culture transmission	Stress - intonation
	Methodology?

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INTRODUCTION TO SCHOOL: AN ENGLISH LANGUAGE EXPERIMENT IN CO-OPERATION BETWEEN THE SCHOOL AND THE COMMUNITY.

*Noel Simpson, Jan Wallbridge, Kath Richter

This course is based on a functional approach to language teaching/learning and is designed specifically for non-English Speaking parents of children who are beginning primary school. We take Fitzroy Primary School as a particular example, and the program is being piloted there in 1977. The functional linguistic needs of the parents have been tentatively assessed and an appropriate classroom methodology is outlined. We emphasize the centrality of the learners' needs to our choices. Six 1½-hour lessons covering the first three weeks of the course are offered here.(1)

Background to the project

A crucial time for non-English speaking parents seems to be when their child begins school. This has been seen to be an optimum time when they are receptive to learning English. For the first time the child is compulsorily out of their hands for most day-light hours and has entered into a domain where English in class is generally the norm. So the process can be threatening in two basic ways, the separation and the language. It is the start of ten years of compulsory schooling, and it is impossible for the parent to participate in the child's education if the child is unable to communicate in the language of the school and to understand the educational system. As well, being able to use English in our society has many wider ramifications.

From talking widely with migrant parents, it is clear that they see this question of their child's education as fundamental. In particular, it is the freedom in Australia relative to their own society that they find most disturbing. When they are confronted by so many problems, such as language, finance, housing, employment, and cultural difference, it is easy for the school to be crystallised out as a scapegoat for their family adjustment problems. This

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* Mr Simpson was until recently teaching at the Migrant Education Branch, Melbourne. Ms Wallbridge is currently teaching the program that is the subject of this article. Ms Richter is the Migrant English Co-ordinator at the Fitzroy Primary School. The program was prepared as an assignment for a Teaching English as a Second Language Subject in B.Ed. at Latrobe University under Ms. Helen Moore.

(1) Mr Simpson has pointed out, since submitting this article, that the proposed three-week program in practice has lasted much longer - about eight weeks, in fact. The pilot scheme is reported to be operating very successfully, and it is planned to extend the program for the rest of the year. (Ed.)

is especially likely when both parents are working and the separation of the child at school coincides with discipline and behaviour problems at home. At the Fitzroy school, 75 per cent of the children come from families where English is not the first language.

Further, there is an assumption common to many teachers that, suddenly, the education of the children is now their exclusive professional concern, whereas, for the five years up to this point, it was totally the responsibility of the parents. On the other hand, some schools are concerned to consider the expectations of the parents, and to work together with them in the education process. This is the attitude of the vice-principal in charge of the infants school and the Migrant English Co-ordinator at Fitzroy. This project then is an attempt to assist a process of direct communication in English between the parents and the school.

Broad Aims:

1. To help to achieve a change in the attitudes of parents who often feel threatened by the school, to give them knowledge of the school's program, to give them confidence to exchange ideas, and to encourage them to be involved, as the school would desire, in activities such as story-reading and excursions.

2. To assist in changing the attitudes of many teachers to migrant parents who, because of their lack of communicative competence, are seen by the teachers as rude, aggressive, and uninterested, within the the school context.

3. To help communication between the individual parent and the individual child concerning school activities, because breakdown in migrant parent-child communication often starts at this point.

Particular Aim:

To teach the English the learner needs for communication with the school and with other parents, concerning the learning situation at Fitzroy Primary School, and for simple social contact.

Types of Students:

(i) Generally mothers, aged from their twenties to their forties.

(ii) They have been in Australia for more than two years and/or have some familiarity with spoken English (they may not be very literate in English or their first language).

(iii) They are already using English to some extent, however inaccurately, and their passive knowledge of the language may be reasonably extensive.

(iv) They probably have not attended English classes consistently before.

(v) They are of mixed nationality, though predominantly Greek.

(vi) They want to learn English but lack confidence about the language and the school.

(The maximum number of students in the class would be twelve, and the classes, of 1½ hours duration with fifteen minutes at the end for tea and coffee, would be held twice a week.)

Teaching/Learning Methodology

A functional or communicative language program is based, linguistically, on rules of actual use, and not rules of grammar. It starts with the communicative functions that the students want to perform, with respect to the social roles they encompass and the situations they are likely to meet. This approach then tries to fulfil the students' functional needs by providing appropriate language for these circumstances. The objective is to have the students using the language for real personal communication, not just learning about the structures of the language, or using it only in set forms and set situations controlled by the teacher.

So this course differs from one which follows a linear grading of structural language items. The learning of structures here comes as a cyclical process. The language activities and experiences will be selected so that the most simple and basic functions are performed first. We believe that using personally meaningful language is not basically a Skinnerian behaviourist learning process, and that making mistakes, through freer usage, is part of learning. Since communication is the aim, perfection in pronunciation and intonation should not be insisted upon, at the expense of fluent and comprehensible usage. Language models, and practice in producing these, should be provided. The basic concern is with oral communication, although a small part of the students' needs involve written work.

The learning is an on-going process and there needs to be feedback from the students to make the communication interaction flexible. Assessment of progress will be made from the communication activity of the students. No one classroom technique is prescribed for success. The teacher will at various times, have the role of consultant, adviser, interested listener and sharer, and so will the students.

Preliminary Investigation

We spent time discussing with Australian and migrant mothers something of their experiences and feelings during their child's first days at school in order to establish some of the material that we might include. It was obvious that their concerns were on a variety of levels. They wanted to be able to approach their child's teacher and they were aware that their child often found it very difficult to adjust to the totally unfamiliar climate of the classroom; they wanted to discuss this with the teacher. Other parents were concerned about the child's inability to adapt to the school's timetable, worried whether the child would eat his lunch, go to the toilet, and cope with relationships in the playground.

One of the members of the team works at Fitzroy school and the other two visited to make themselves familiar with the layout and organization of the prep. rooms. We talked with the teachers and the vice-principal in charge of the infants school to seek their guidance concerning the course. The vice-principal was able to make us familiar not only with the prep-program, but also with the kind of questions that parents asked and the sort of information that parents needed, that is, the needs of migrant parents as perceived by the school. He supported the aims of the project. The information which parents need should form an important part of the language teaching.

We have tried to use this information in planning the course. We realised that many questions parents had could be dealt with at an orientation parent meeting for all the parents of beginners. As a result we discussed this with the vice-principal and teachers in the infant section and planned a session for all parents on the first day with interpreters to meet the needs of non-English speakers. The questions from this introductory session could be incorporated into the English program later. This was seen as a good time to recruit parents for the English course, as well as the occasion of official enrolment.

Multi-Lingual Dimension of the Course

This program has been devised to enable communication in English between the parents and the school. However, we believe there are significant implications for the use of the students' first languages to transmit necessary information to the parents and to allow exchange between parents and the teachers. However, we realise that, although most of the inter-actions in this course have to be carried on in English, it is of interest for everyone to share social formulae and it is also an important way of opening up channels for communication between different ethnic groups.

LESSONS

List of Contents:

(1) (a) Personal Introductions.

(b) Introductory Responses to Teacher Questions.

(2) (a) Social Greeting Conversation - parent-teacher greetings - forms of address.

(b) Child Enrolment Information - Alphabet, spelling - simple form filling.

(3) School Routines - initiating questions to the teacher.

(4) School Environment - naming places and prep. room activities.

(5) Lunches (how to order) and nutrition.

(6) Absence Notes (how to write) and sickness.

Rationale

The lessons are arranged in order of needs as we perceive them. It was considered appropriate to begin with exchange of personal information between the English teacher and the parent and to use this as a language model for parent-to-parent introductions. This is intended to boost the personal confidence of the students before the more threatening topic of school is introduced. The second segment of the first lesson is to equip the parent to reply to the sort of questions a teacher might ask when the parent first approaches the school.

Provision is made for each lesson to be followed by tea or coffee for fifteen minutes or so, and it is in this time that practice in social conversation can occur, starting with basic greetings, and extending later to weather and any other topic of interest. There will be maps in the area to stimulate discussion of their background and the exchange of greetings in their languages. This time too will be used for communication with the ethnic teacher aides in the school, and at times with the classroom teachers themselves. It will be seen that, from Lesson 3 on, the lessons are concerned just as much with school information as with simple English, and these components could be helped by freer discussion between the parents and the relevant teacher aide.

Lesson 2 tries to facilitate simple social conversation between the parent and the teacher, and introduces a written component. It is important that the teachers have enrolment-type information in English, although it can be provided officially in another language.

Often the first concern of both parents and teachers is with starting and finishing times and this forms the basis of Lesson 3. Lesson 4 widens this information about the school, and it is hoped that discussion of school activities will now start to come more easily from the parents. An important area of initial parent involvement is with lunches and this is found in Lesson 5. The last of these introductory lessons, Lesson 6, teaches how to write absence notes, especially when children are sick. This is a fundamental practical problem. Later, this could be expanded to a consideration of health generally. Another lesson which would logically follow absence notes would be permission forms and excursions. We stress that the lesson pace and form will vary according to the needs of the particular students at the time. This outline of six lessons is offered only as a guide.

Lesson 1. (a) Personal Introductions

Aim: to enable the parents to respond to, and initiate, an introductory social conversation with each other.

Teaching Procedure: The elements of these social language formulae may well be familiar to the learners but the systematising of them will not be. Since real communication is the aim of this language program the teaching style will be relatively informal, and other comments should be allowed, even encouraged, to intersperse the core of the lesson, depending on the language level and responsiveness of the learners. In this way, students will learn useful conversation "fillers", for example, 'Really?'.

Language component: Short factual answers to question-word questions.

Lesson Format: (These notes are more detailed in this first lesson.) The teacher starts with a greeting and then provides her name, using first name but adding surname (and writing it on the blackboard), and then informally questions each parent, for name, country, and time in Australia.

for example: What's your name?

Where are you from? (What country?)

How long (How many years) have you been in Australia?

Then the activity can be formalised a little by framing an Introduction Conversation on the blackboard.

Ask the students to supply the questions this time and, if necessary, rephrase to give:

A. What's your name?

B. _____

A. Where are you from?

B. _____

A. How long have you been in Australia?

B. _____years

A. How many children do you have?

B. _____

A. How old are they?

B. _____

The teacher can practise this with a student and then ask them if they want to write down the completed dialogue with their personal information. Then practise the questions, before getting the parents to question each other.

(Approx. 45 minutes)

(b) Introductory Responses to Teacher Questions:

Aim: To enable the parents to respond to initial questions from a teacher.

Lesson Format: Set the situation where the parent comes to the school to collect her child, and the teacher speaks to her for the first time.

Ask the students if they can suggest what the teacher might ask. Likely questions are:

What's your name? (teach Mrs. as an alternative here)

What's your child's name?

Does he/she have any brothers or sisters at school?

Check these for comprehension and let the parents practise the situation (approx. 30 minutes)

Later questions in this category may include:

Is he/she good at home?

Does he/she get on well with his brothers/sisters/father?

Are you at home in the day?

Coffee and Discussion

Lesson 2. (a) Social Greeting Conversation:

Aim: To enable the parent to engage the teacher in basic social conversation after their first meeting.

Teacher Procedure: This lesson starts by formalizing what has already occurred with the English Teacher, and transferring it to the child's teacher.

Language components Language for everyday purposes from "Hello" to "goodbye".

Lesson Format: The teacher sets the situation and asks students to join in providing appropriate language for the function. A useful division of language here is between formal and informal language.

Formal	Informal
Good morning	Hello (most common)
afternoon	Hi
evening	Good-day
How are you? (most common)	How are you going?
Good: Very well, thank you	Good, thanks. I'm good
(Bad; Not very well, thank you.)	Fine
	Not too bad
	(Not too good)

And you? How are you?

Students could practise this in dialogue, and the teacher could mention the dimension of the Australian accent.

The expression 'I must go now' could be taught, looking at a watch, to accompany:

Good-bye	Bye-bye (most common)
Nice to see you	Ta-ta
	See you later

(20 minutes)

Form of address: There is a great deal of room for flexibility and development in this section. When this conversation is practised for use with a teacher, it can be pointed out that, even though a teacher may introduce herself as Anna Smith, the name you probably use at first is Miss Smith, unless she says it's Mrs. Smith.

(b) Child Enrolment Information:

Aim: To enable the parent to fill in a basic information form.

To check the names of the letters of the alphabet and spelling.

Kit: Copies of Admission Forms for a State Primary School.

Teaching Procedure: Teaching the alphabet is a pre-requisite to any written or spelling work. It can be enjoyed as an activity; pronunciation in English of the letters is always accepted as a problem by students. The form can give the students some concrete evidence of learning. Use can be made here of Child's Health Centre Books.

Language component: Basic language for forms.

Lesson Format: The teacher shows a copy of the enrolment/admission form to the parents and says this information is necessary for the teachers in English. To write it, students must first know the alphabet in English.

This can be done by grouping letters according to common sound, for practice, or simply by practising the 25 letters in order.

When the students are reasonably proficient at this, ask them to spell their names. The teacher writes on the board as they spell, to check for accuracy. Practise surname as a category, as well as first/other/Christian names.

Then return to the form, giving each student a copy. Go through the form orally to check comprehension; then ask the students to write the information on the form. The teacher can move around to help individually during this process.

(Approx. 55 minutes)

Coffee and discussion

Lesson 3. School Routines

Aims: to enable the mothers to be familiar with the basic school routines.

to enable them to ask for information about these routines and other aspects of the child's school experience.

Kit: Photos of children involved in routine daily activities at school

Time information sheets: English and appropriate languages

Clock model

Time chart for teacher's use on the overhead projector

Individual time charts to be filled in by each mother

Overhead projector

Teaching Procedure: We plan to use photos in this session as it was thought that at this stage parents would prefer to remain in the comparative security of their own class area, to discuss the school and the associated routines. We plan to have students move around the school in the next lesson after their initial introduction.

Language component: School vocabulary

Time (as needed - cyclical learning). See additional component for Lesson 3 in Appendix.

Formula to ask for information

Lesson: Format

(i) Check knowledge of times first and vocabulary for basic discussion. Use photos and clock model to give information for comprehension.

(ii) Give out time information sheets.

(iii) Present and practise the following formula:

Excuse me, can you tell me? ...

(a) what time the children start school?

(b) At nine o'clock.

(a) what time the children have lunch?

(b) At 12 o'clock.

(a) what time the children go home?

(b) At 2.30

(iv) Students practise together in pairs.

(v) Then using sheet, teacher asks question to fill in time chart on the overhead projector. Extension from the school day to other routines.

(vi) Individual students fill in their own time sheets.

(vii) Discussion and framing of any further questions students might have about the school.

For example: Where do the children eat lunch?

When do they go to the toilet?

Photos again used here.

Coffee and further discussion.

Lesson 4. School Environment: naming places and prep. room activities

Aims: To enable mothers to be familiar with the physical layout of the school and the atmosphere of the school environment - especially the prep. room and areas where their children are involved.

To help parents to start talking about the school in English. The intention is to arouse parents' interest in the school environment and to give them the ability to communicate with their children about these areas in the school - particularly as many children will only learn the relevant vocabulary in English.

To inform parents about activities in the prep. room.

Kit: Photos of places around the school

Photos of students involved in a variety of activities in the prep. room.

Prepared diagram of the school labelled in English and appropriate languages - and accompanying overhead projector sheet with similar diagram.

Teaching Procedure: The students will walk around the school and talk about what they see. Particular attention will be focussed on the areas where the prep. children spend their time.

Back in the discussion area photographs will be used and also a labelled diagram of the school.

We believe that these activities stimulate the kind of involvement that makes for language learning and practice.

Language component: Here's the... This is the ...
New vocabulary associated with school areas.

Lesson format:

(i) (a) Students will walk around the school and teacher will introduce various places.

Here's the toy library.
Here's the infant playground.
Here are the toilets.

(b) Teacher will also introduce prep. grade teachers.

This is prep. grade 1E.

The teacher is Mrs Bradbeld.

This is prep. grade 1F.

The teacher is Mrs Curtis. The children call her Diana.

General discussion will occur.

(ii) After walk, group returns to discussion area.

(a) The teacher/speaker points to different parts of the school on the overhead projector sheet.

This is the ...

Here's the ...

(b) Students can practise in pairs, taking it in turns to point out different parts of the school on their own individual school plans.

(iii) Then photos used to discuss the activities in the prep. room.

for example - The children are painting now.
The children are listening now.
The children are building now.
The children are playing now.

Further information and discussion of activities can be conveyed in student's own language. Some language exchange could take place.

for example: What is the name for this in Greek?

Coffee/discussion.

Lesson 5. Lunches - how to order - and nutrition

Aim: to introduce mothers to the procedure and practice of ordering lunch from the school.

to make mothers familiar with the choice offered.

to make them aware of the importance of nutritional food at school.

to give them the oral and written competence to order lunch for their child.

Kit: List of items of food available. Prices included.

Lunch bags

Photos of lunch procedure
collection
delivery etc.

Teaching Procedure

It is intended to use the conclusion of this session as a time when parents can meet the teachers of the prep. grades in an informal situation. So, as an opening activity we plan to make sandwiches to be used in the coffee time.

Discussion of vocabulary on lunches will first be introduced informally in this segment.

The second segment is to enable mothers to actually be involved in deciding what their children eat for lunch.

Language component

Question: What's this ...? What do you want ...?
Vocabulary - lunches - food generally.

Lesson Format

(i) Make some sandwiches of different sorts,

for example: ham
cheese
tomato

Discussion in English.

(ii) Using lunch - order lists, continue discussion of sandwiches, pies, pasties.

Read the list and discuss.

To exchange the names of interesting foods would be stimulating and valuable at this point.

Each mother is to take the lunch order list home.

(iii) Teacher hands out lunch bags.

The method for ordering lunches is explained.

Teacher does a sample on the blackboard.

Katrina E.	1E
1 meat sand.	25
1 apple	15
1 milk	15
	55

Further discussion of the procedure for ordering, collecting and distributing to take place using the photographs as a stimulus.

(iv) Class members decide on lunch orders for their children.

Teacher asks - What do you want to order ...?

Writes some examples on the blackboard.

(v) Discussion on the importance of nutritional food. Information on nutrition.

This is an important area to return to in subsequent classes - it will be introduced briefly in this session.

Coffee/Sandwiches.

Teachers from the prep. grades will be asked to join the group.

(Opportunity for using material covered in previous lessons.)

Lesson 6. Absence notes - how to write - and sickness

Aims: to give the students a model for writing absence notes.

to give students practice at writing absence notes.

to make parents familiar with English names for various children's illnesses.

Kit: Writing pad

Appointment card

Prepared letter forms

Photo of teacher marking roll

Teaching procedures

The teacher takes this opportunity to stress the importance of explaining the children's absences. Parents are expected to inform the school of the reason for absence from school.

Language component

- Verb 'to have', past tense, and past tense of 'to be'

- structure using "because ..."

- "sickness" vocabulary

Lesson format

(i) Teacher explains: "Sometimes your child is not well. It is important to tell the teacher. You can send a note."

(ii) Discuss basic vocabulary on printed sheet and use blackboard for extensions.

(iii) Teacher writes some models on the blackboard - given from a particular student's experience. Hand out model and writing paper.

Teacher moves around room to help mothers frame their own notes. (N.B. see component added to Lesson 6 in Appendix.)

(iv) Extend discussion to cover other reasons children do not go to school.

Write these on the blackboard. He has a dentist appointment. Use an appointment card to explain.

Coffee/discussion

APPENDIX

Days of the week, dates (Component added to Lesson 6)

Aim: Accurate recognition of days and dates.

Format: Use a large calendar
Sheets with days and months
Dialogue: Weekdays/Weekends

Did you have a nice weekend?

Telling the time (Component added to Lesson 3)

Aim: Ability to tell the time with some accuracy.

Format: What's the time?

6,7,8 o'clock.
quarter to
quarter past
half past

What time do you get up?
What time do you eat tea?
What time do you go to bed?

We recommend for further reading.

T.C. Jupp and S. Hodlin - Industrial English. An example of the theory and practice of functional language teaching. London, Heinemann, 1975.

D.A. Wilkins - Second Language Learning and Teaching. Department of Linguistic Science: University of Reading. Edward Arnold, 1974.

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PRACTICAL EXERCISES FOR FOSTERING COMMUNICATIVE SKILLS IN ADULT LEARNERS OF ENGLISH

*Dorothy F. Brown and Janet Holmes

Native speakers of any language differ in the ease with which they can communicate with friends or strangers. This range of sociolinguistic skills is influenced by many linguistic, paralinguistic and personality factors. Some intensely shy native speakers, or people who are recovering from an illness need a great deal of encouragement and perhaps even some special training before they are able to communicate easily with strangers in a formal or informal situation. Students learning English as a second or foreign language are as varied in their mother tongue socio-linguistic competence as native speakers of English are. To the new language, English, they bring their variation of skills in communication, but they are also constrained by their limited knowledge of the language and their knowledge of the social codes that operate in particular situations in the new country. Sometimes when the student has a good command of formal English, especially as it is written, he still has little experience of speaking and judging appropriate language behaviour for the situations in which he finds himself.

One consequence of moving to a new country, is that the visiting overseas students, or the adult migrants who have come to stay temporarily or permanently, probably have to speak to many more strangers each day or each week than they have to in their own country. Yet this challenge occurs at a time when they are unsure of their own speech, unaccustomed to listening to the local variety of English and uncertain of the new social climate.

The English Language Institute in Wellington, New Zealand, enrols about eighty students for a twelve week summer course each November. They are students for the University the following year, visiting scientists and immigrants. They mostly have some knowledge of English. Many exercises were devised to help to improve their social skills. The exercises were used with the upper 75 per cent of the students. A paper called 'Developing Sociolinguistic Competence in a Second Language'(1) was written about the theoretical aspects of the course, used from November 1975 to February 1976. A few exercise examples were given in this paper which has been accepted by the T.E.S.O.L. Quarterly and will appear in 1977. Another paper

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'Sociolinguistic Competence and Second Language Learning' containing a few more of the exercises will appear in Topics in Culture Learning, 1977 (ed. R. W. Brislin).(2) Areas covered by the exercises used in the course were: the functions of questions, implications of questions, appropriateness and politeness, the intentions of the other speaker, the use of evasive measures, ways of gaining initiative in a conversation, using the telephone and ways of getting information repeated.

The exercises and suggestions presented here are some of those used on the course and not included in the other articles, together with some new exercises to help make students aware of some non-verbal messages which are part of the communicative process.

Functions of Questions

Some questions appear to be asked only to get information, for example 'What's the time please?' or 'When does the next bus go?' Even these questions may be used to open a general conversation by a person whose main purpose is to find someone else to talk to. Other questions are obviously used partly for information but also for some other reason. For example, 'What's the matter?' said in a kind voice asks for information and gives sympathy.

Exercise I

Here are some questions which ask for information and also either give advice, ask for sympathy, ask for permission, offer help or ask for help. Practise in pairs: one asks the question, another gives an answer and then together decide what the function of the question would be in different situations.

	Question	Possible Answer	Function	Possible Situation
e.g.	Are you feeling better now?	A little	Information & giving sympathy	Adult to child after a fall
1.	Did it worry you?			
2.	Have you got enough money?			
3.	Does it still hurt?			
4.	Would it look better a little shorter?			
5.	Can you mend this for me please?			

6. Shall I do the shopping for you?

7. Is there anything coming?

8. Can you manage by yourself?

9. Why don't you revise your work again?

10. May I borrow your dictionary please?

When you have finished this make up some advice questions starting -

Why don't you .....?

Why not .....?

and ask them to another member of the class.

Comment

1. For many students this was the first time they had thought of question function in their first or second language. In the first language most people do not stop to consider function.

2. The tutor demonstrated the effect of stress on some of these questions and the students practised in pairs.

3. Making up questions giving advice was at first quite strange for the students. Other practice at making questions with definite functions could be tried.

Exercise II Functions of Questions in the Classroom

Instructions:

Here are some everyday questions used by teachers to children. What do you think is the teacher's purpose when asking these questions?

1. What happened?
2. Are you sure?
3. What do you want?
4. Is anything wrong?
5. Who did that?
6. What's the hurry?
7. Is that enough?
8. Is it important?
9. How dare you?
10. Where does it hurt most?
11. What do you think of that?
12. What's the joke?
13. Are you looking for something?

14. Was it a good game?
15. Where did you get that?
16. Can I help you?
17. Who's finished?
18. How much?
19. Who's making that noise?
20. Can you do it by yourself?
21. Has anyone any suggestions?
22. Who would like to help me?

Comment

1. In this exercise the setting and the speaker are given. The students have to think for themselves what function the question is serving.

2. The students produced many reasons for asking questions. This sometimes required them to find a new English word from their fellow students or from a dictionary, for example, to be sarcastic, to reprimand.

3. The effect of stress on meaning was discussed particularly with 5, 11, 15. The tutor demonstrated the possible ways of stressing and the students took turns to give an appropriate answer.

4. As the students considered function they came to realise that many questions have several functions.

5. The questions in this list are not a random collection, but come from a list of common classroom questions prepared for teachers training to teach deaf children.

Exercise III Implications of Questions

Instructions:

Read the question or statement made by X. Write what you think you know about X or Y from reading this. Give a possible reply for Y. He can either agree or disagree with X. Give a reason for your answer. An example is given.

Question or Statement from X to Y	What you think you know about X and Y	A possible answer
Wasn't that a good film?	X and Y have both seen the film. X likes it and expects Y to like it.	No, I don't think it was. It was too sentimental. (Y disagrees.)
1. Have you passed your test this time?		
2. Did you pay $20 for it.		

3. Do we have to go to the museum?

4. The last bus hasn't gone? Has it?

5. Will you remind me to post this letter?

6. Is your second son also good at athletics?

7. I hope you won't miss any more classes.

8. Are you sure you want it?

9. Don't you get tired of teaching small children?

10. I promise I won't leave the gate open again.

Comment

1. Before this exercise was started the words 'implication' and 'implied' were explained and a few examples were studied together.

2. In the exercise the students often did not realise that Y was free to agree or disagree with X.

3. A variant of the exercise is to ask students to give two possible replies, one where Y agrees and one where Y disagrees.

Exercise IV Pairs of Questions

Instructions:

Discuss these pairs of questions. What sort of answer does each one expect?

Can you make a generalised comment about the differences that the negative makes? Does it work for all of them? Compare group B with group G.

Make up some other pairs in groups of three and practise giving appropriate answers.

A. Do you expect to win?
Don't you expect to win?

B. Can you read?
Can't you read?

C. Will you come to my party?
Won't you come to my party?

D. Do you like bananas?
Don't you like bananas?

E. Do you speak Greek?
Don't you speak Greek?

F. Have you been to London?
Haven't you been to London?

G. Can I come with you?
Can't I come with you?

H. Could you lend me $5?
Couldn't you lend me $5?

Comment

1. The students admitted that they had often made mistakes by interpreting these types of questions wrongly. They commented that many of the questions asked socially were of this type.

2. Sometimes the questions are even harder to decode because they have question-tags. It is probably best to wait until students handle questions well without tags, before practising them with tags.

Non-verbal Messages

Many non-verbal messages are important in communication and these can easily be misunderstood by learners of a language. For example, Michael Argyle says 'Greeks (and probably others) are upset when coming to England because people do not stare at them in public, and they feel they are being ignored'.(3)

The best way to learn about non-verbal communication is, as the children of all cultures do, by observation. However, adult learners can be helped by being made aware of what to look for and being introduced to the vocabulary with which to talk about non-verbal messages in English and to discuss how they are used in their own cultures. Discussions on this topic in a mixed cultural group are very interesting. Even if the English spoken is poor, the mixture of words and demonstrations makes for a lively English class.

Exercise V

A. Here is a list of some ways of giving a non-verbal message. First check that you know the meanings of these words. Use a dictionary if necessary. Then look at the words and phrases given below and try to guess the possible messages given. You can never be sure of a message unless it is in a particular situation. Fill in the table. The first one is given as an example.

Action of Non-Verbal Message	Possible Message (The Sender is ....)
Example: smiling	Answer: pleased, happy
1. waving	1.
2. pointing	2.
3. crying	3.
4. laughing	4.
5. frowning	5. (Most appropriate
6. staring	6. answers to be
7. raising the eyebrows	7. provided from the
8. shaking hands with someone	8. list below)
9. nodding the head	9.
10. shrugging the shoulders.	10.

Words and Phrases

angry	surprised	showing he does not	amazed
saying goodbye	startled	care	sad
happy	hurt		
in despair	greeting from a distance	wanting to show the way	puzzled
wanting to distinguish one thing from another	very amused	frustrated	wanting to draw attention to something at a distance
unbelieving	showing he does not know	playful	
agreeing	greeting someone	worried	
		paying careful attention	displeased
		showing interest	rude

B.

1. Discuss with the tutor the messages that can be conveyed by winking in this society and your society.

2. How do you show disgust non-verbally in this society and in your own society.

3. Both people and animals show fear. What are the signs? Are they voluntary or involuntary?

4. What non-verbal ways are there of dominating another person?

Some suggestions for tutors to help students increase their social skills. These can be discussed and practised.

1. Giving Names and Addresses to Strangers

Most foreign names need to be spelt e.g. in banks, shops, schools, for doctors. Most people however when asked for their name do not spell it and when asked to spell it, give the letters far too fast, and do not group them.

Practise this with your students in pairs.

Official: What's your name?

Student: Punagtong Tirasoothorn.

Official: Please spell it.

Student: P.u. - n.a.g. - t.o.n.g., new word, T.i.r.a. - s.o.o. - t.h.o.r.n.

Often it is also necessary to spell the address, and certainly it must be given in a clear voice. This too needs practice as stress on street names and suburbs is often not known.

2. Using the Telephone

Many people recently arrived in a country are hesitant about using a telephone. Even if their own English is good, they are unsure about understanding the person who will answer, and they miss the non-verbal clues on which they rely in direct conversation.

Set homework this way. Ask the students to ring you at a convenient specified time. Give them their homework over the phone. This will be the first time some of them have used the telephone and it is reassuring when they know who will answer. Another evening you may be able to get a friend to co-operate to answer and they will have to experience the sequence used when the person who answers a phone is not the person who is wanted. After students can

ring with confidence from a private phone, take a class on the use of the public phone and then ask them to use this to ring you for homework.

3. Information Retrieval Strategies

It is very important for students to know how to get messages, sentences, phrases or words repeated which they have not followed. Also they need to be able to ask for the meaning of something when they have heard correctly but still do not understand.

You need to encourage your students to be brave enough to do this. They often think it is impolite to ask, but it needs to be explained that it is more socially acceptable to acknowledge ignorance rather than try to blunder on giving inappropriate replies because of misunderstood or partly understood questions or statements.

Practise these, with students making their own situations.

Please repeat what you said, I don't understand.
Please, what does the word ..... mean?
Could you please speak more slowly?
Can I repeat that to you, to see if I've heard it correctly?
I beg your pardon?
I don't understand.
Please write that down for me.
I understood the first part, but I could not understand you after .....
Does that mean .....?

Conclusion

In the keynote address to the Conference of the Applied Linguistics Association of Australia, in August 1976, Professor M.A.K. Halliday(4) said that one of the things which he found a problem in a second language was not knowing what to say. These exercises are to help students begin to know what to say. Communicative skills can probably be improved by practising in a classroom situation, before or at the same time as attempting to perform socially in the real world. If the students are adults, some analysis of why the exchanges are taking place may help them to understand how to perform.

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SOME NOTES ON VISITS TO LANGUAGE CENTRES IN THE UNITED KINGDOM

*Thelma Grant

One of my visits was to the Polytechnic of Central London, which has a large overseas student intake. At that College students sit for the Cambridge Certificate Examination and the Proficiency Certificate Exam. If non-English speaking students are having trouble with the language (which in most cases is what happens) they can attend remedial classes of three hours a day for three to four weeks. The English taught in these classes is mainly to help them to get through the above-mentioned examinations, rather than to help them with the English they really need outside the College. In so many cases these students are able to pass the examinations and still not have good enough 'everyday' English to get on well once they leave school. There should have been greater emphasis on spoken English and general structures. I saw a Mr Kirkwood, Senior Lecturer in the English Department, and he was particularly interested in our Education Program, especially in the full-time courses for overseas students.

Another visit was to Kingsway College which comes under the Inner London Education Authority. This College runs part-time courses in English as a Foreign Language. The day classes cover fifteen hours a week, in three sessions for different groups of students; 9 a.m. to noon, noon to 3 p.m. and 3 p.m. to 6 p.m. daily. The students are heavily pre-tested and start at the required level, proceeding from Beginners to the First Certificate and Proficiency Examinations of Cambridge University. Students can also sit for Stages I, II and III of the Royal Society of Arts Certificates in English for Foreigners. The students are of all nationalities and ages. Some are migrants and others are in England on student visas. The main entry requirements are that the students must be at least sixteen years old and must be able to read and write West European script. There are also evening classes for two hours, three times a week, with another optional evening for pronunciation and conversation classes. The English classes at Kingsway College also cater for academically handicapped students and former school drop-outs usually native English speakers who now wish to pursue further studies or get better jobs requiring a higher standard of English. The special E.F.L. Course and the remedial English course are just two of the great variety of courses held at Kingsway, which is similar to one of our Technical Colleges.

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* Thelma Grant is Supervisor at the Migrant Education Centre, Perth. The visits referred to took place during the latter part of 1975.

I also visited Princeton College which now comes under the Inner London Education Authority and is run in conjunction with Kingsway. Princeton deals solely with English as a Foreign Language and the classes are only for overseas students in Britain on special temporary visas. The academic year is separated into two semesters and at the end of each semester students are strictly tested to see if they are ready to be moved up to the next grade. If necessary they have to repeat the grade they are in until they reach the required level of English. The class times are the same as those of Kingsway College. The student visas are extended as needed so the period covered varies greatly. Some of the students finally go on to University or various other studies or return home when they leave Princeton.

The Central School of English also caters only for people on student visas and in many ways is similar to Princeton, except that it is a completely private school. It is recognised however, as being a good one. The courses range through seven levels, from beginners to the Cambridge Proficiency Examination and students can move up only when they reach the necessary standard. The school also arranges for accommodation when needed and handles all visa extensions. It has a well-equipped language laboratory which is used daily for each class. It is interesting to note that 25 per cent of their students are Japanese and the other 75 per cent come from all over the world. Mr Tom Walsh, the Administration Officer, said that it was difficult to get enough teachers who have had sufficient experience in teaching English as a Foreign Language, although plenty of very well-qualified teachers are available. The fees in this College for fifteen hours a week, worked out at about £30 for four weeks up to £240 for forty-eight weeks and this was fairly average for private colleges. Some students wanted only a short refresher course of one, two or three months, and these were available during the day. Evening Classes are also held, but are for one, two or three months duration only. These are for two hours, three nights a week.

The Language Tuition Centre (School of English) is owned by the Linguaphone Institute. It is a College recommended by the Department of Education and Science and is an authorised centre for all the main examinations in English as a Foreign Language. This Centre impressed me because of the great variety of courses it has to offer. Their range is as follows: Full-Day Intensive Courses (thirty hours a week); Half-Day Intensive Courses (fifteen hours a week); Secretarial, Commercial and Industrial Courses, specifically for the training of Foreign Students in English; Translation Courses; a part-time General English Course (four hours a week) and a Pronunciation Course (two hours a week). Students can take a literature course if they wish. There is also a Home Study Course, similar to Correspondence Courses here, but apart from written answers that are marked and returned, other exercises are answered at home on cassette tapes, sent back to the College, then returned with

recorded corrections and comments on structure, pronunciation, vocabulary and so on. This has the great value of improving the student's spoken English; something that most correspondence courses do not do. Students are taught at five levels, from Beginners to the Cambridge Certificate of Proficiency in English for Foreign Students. The Courses run for 11½ months a year with a break of two weeks at Christmas. The Centre also trains teachers for its own classes and for the Royal Society of Arts T.E.F.L. Courses. The students at the Centre come from all over the world and are sent there by firms, United Nations bodies, and similar groups. Other students are residents or people on student visas, visitor visas or work permits, the last category normally attending at the request of their firms. Usually when a student has reached the fifth level and has passed the required examination, his English is good enough for him to take on university or technical studies. The Centre has a well-equipped language laboratory which is used frequently in conjunction with the lessons taught. The teachers who are employed at the Centre are expected to have had experience in teaching English abroad or to have taught E.F.L. for a number of years in an English-speaking country. The emphasis is on experience. The College will arrange for private tuition if requested by the student, or by a firm or an organisation, and if the College agrees that it is necessary. They also have an excellent counselling service covering such matters as accommodation, visas, employment and personal problems. Summer schools organised by this College are held at the Universities of East Anglia, Sussex, Reading and Aston in Birmingham.

The most important Language Centre that I visited was International House, which is an International Teacher Training Institute and a centre of E.S.L. and E.F.L. teaching. They have branches all over the world and are hoping to open branches in Australia and elsewhere soon. The Teacher Training Section is separated into courses for E.S.L. student teachers whose mother-tongue is English, and for foreign teachers of English who must have attained a high standard in the language. I spent a full day at International House. In the morning I saw student teachers of various levels watching demonstrations and hearing lectures; there were also students of English having lessons. These latter students were of all nationalities and their English ranged from very poor to advanced. The methods used are very similar to the situational method. I went from class to class so was able to see a wide spectrum of standards, techniques, subjects, problems and reactions. In the afternoon some of the more advanced student teachers take a group of six students each. The student teachers are previously told what each group has been studying, so that they can have something prepared. Each student teacher is allowed to choose his or her own method. The idea is to give the student teachers practice and experience, and at the same time the students of English have extra drilling. These sessions last for half an hour each and are supervised by lecturers who write comments on each student teacher. Then at the end of the sessions lasting a total of two hours

(four groups of six students for half an hour) the lecturers have a discussion session with the student teachers to point out what they have done badly or well, or ways of improving techniques. Other student teachers sit in on these classes and sessions and give their comments or suggestions, which are also discussed in the group with the lecturer.

My attention was drawn by a teacher friend, to a television program called "On the Move", a half-hour program that uses simple, basic vocabulary mainly with a view to teaching the viewers how to read, write and spell. It is in colour and is particularly well-produced with interesting settings, songs and presentation. The "actors" are adults and I thought it was an excellent program to teach children how to read and write. The only thing that surprised me was that the characters were all adults and that the show was screened in the evening. I then discovered that it was, in fact a program for the two to three million illiterate adults (roughly between 16 and 40 years old) in Britain. The survey into this did not include any non-English speaking people or anyone who was remotely mentally handicapped in any way. This was hard for me to believe but I contacted the B.B.C. who were most helpful. I spoke to the Program Co-ordinator, Mrs Mann, and to Miss Morehouse, who is connected with the production. The program began in October, 1975, in conjunction with the B.B.C. and the Department of Education and Science, as the result of three years of research. A lot of the people who are found to be illiterate have quite good positions and a high I.Q. but for various reasons got through school without being able to read or write. There is a book called "On the Move" that costs £1 and can be bought at most bookshops. This is used in conjunction with the television program. At the end of each program, an address and phone number is given so that people can get in touch to ask for help. Reading and writing classes are also held in different places to extend the television program. The teachers in these classes are volunteers and use a book called "The Adult Literacy Teachers Handbook" which follows the book, "On the Move".

Miss Morehouse also suggested that I should contact Mrs M. Kirwan at The Digby Stuart College of Higher Education in Roehampton Lane, some distance out of London. Mrs Kirwan is Head of the Acquired Language Division of the English Speaking Board and a Senior Lecturer at the College. She enlightened me further on the Adult Literacy situation and said how greatly she envied us here with our Migrant Education Program as something exactly like it would be the answer to their dreams.

In Devon, I called in at the Plymouth Polytechnic but found that although they have quite a lot of overseas students, no special help is given with English. At the Devonport College of Further Education, I saw Mr Glanville who is a Counsellor, dealing mainly with Overseas Students at the College. He said that 10 per cent of their students are not native-English speakers. Most go to England just to do a particular full-time course and they get remedial English to assist them with their studies.

In Bath, in Somerset (Avon), I contacted Mrs S. Allan who is Deputy Head of the Wansdyke Special School. This school caters for "problem pupils" who have had to leave their former schools for various reasons. The students might be school drop-outs, rejects or young people who are not retarded or slow-learners but who have psychological problems from any number of causes. In many cases, these students are very intelligent. A great emphasis is placed on English, as without it no other subject can be mastered. The students are mostly teenagers who eventually go back to their normal studies, get a job or end up in prison. On the whole, the special school is a great success, and there are similar schools throughout Britain.

While in the U.K., I read an article in an educational magazine that special classes are held in the Midlands to teach migrants how to swear and abuse "correctly", and to understand when others do the same! Just a final point of interest.

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